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**Final Report on**

NASA CR-

144410

# **THE DESIGN OF A DIGITAL VOICE DATA COMPRESSION TECHNIQUE FOR ORBITER VOICE CHANNELS**

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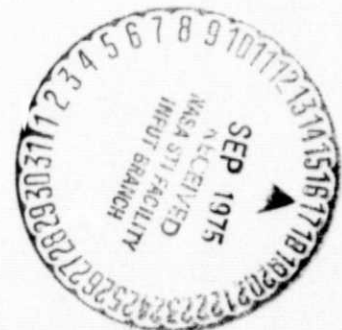
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# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 BACKGROUND

This study of voice bandwidth compression techniques was motivated by anticipated link margin difficulties in the Shuttle S-band communication system. It was felt that by reducing the data rate on each voice channel from the baseline 24 (or 32) Kbps to 8 Kbps, additional margin could be obtained. Thus, this study was undertaken to determine the feasibility of such an alternate voice transmission system. Several factors of prime importance that were addressed are:

- 1) Achieving high quality voice at 8 Kbps,
- 2) performance in the presence of the anticipated shuttle cabin environmental noise,
- 3) performance in the presence of the anticipated channel error statistics,
- 4) minimal increase in size, weight, and power over the current baseline voice processor.

## 1.2 TASKS

The following is a summary of the tasks performed under this contract:

### Task 1: System Requirement Analysis

Descriptions of the operational environment including cabin background noise and channel error rates were determined through consultation with NASA-JSC personnel. Material for system testing was supplied by NASA/JSC. It was decided, based on previous work at TRW, to examine various forms of adaptive predictive coding (APC) for the Orbiter application.

### Task 2: Compression Technique Design and Evaluation

Preliminary analysis of several existing APC algorithms led to the selection of a computationally simple algorithm with a noise squelching function. This basic algorithm which was developed under a TRW IR&D program was then subjected to a preliminary parameter optimization specific to Shuttle requirements. The system was simulated in integer arithmetic on an Interdata 85 computer, and voice tapes provided by NASA/JSC were processed through the simulation. The properties of the proposed channel were also simulated and several tapes were processed through the APC system and simulated channel.

### TASK 3: Parameter Optimization

Tradeoffs were performed varying the parameters of the chosen system, such as frame rate, sampling rate, number of coefficients, etc., and it was determined that the original system was near optimum in light of the implementation constraints. A revised baseline was established and used to process one tape. In consultation with NASA/JSC, it was decided to examine a special-purpose hardware implementation based on a micro-controller and arithmetic unit. A preliminary design and a sizing were then performed for this configuration.

#### 1.3 SUMMARY

An 8 kbps Adaptive Predictive Coding system for potential orbiter use was designed and then simulated in integer arithmetic. The system performs well and shows good resistance to both channel errors and background noise similar to those anticipated in the orbiter application. Channel error rates ranging from  $10^{-4}$  to  $10^{-2}$  were simulated with the result that rates of  $10^{-3}$  or less were judged to have negligible impact on the received voice quality, and a rate of  $10^{-2}$ , while noticeable, produced no unexpected distortions. Due to the inclusion of an adaptive squelching unit, the level of noise in the received voice was often below the input noise level at the transmitter.

A preliminary estimate of the flight hardware configuration indicates that one full duplex system could be implemented in fewer than 200 C-MOS IC's (including both LSI and MSI chips) using less than 20 watts. The amount of hardware required is insensitive to small variations (ten percent or less) in both the data rate and frame size. Thus, the system is easily adaptable to minor changes in the Network Signal Processor operation.

## 2 VOICE ALGORITHM

### 2.1 THEORY

The chosen system is a form of adaptive delta modulation (Figure 2.1) in which both the quantizer step size and the predictor coefficients are optimized over a time interval (called a frame) for the current speech statistics. Experimental observations of speech statistics indicate that the speech signal can be considered stationary over a time interval of 10 to 30 milliseconds. Thus, a typical frame time is chosen in this range.

#### 2.1.1 Transmitter

The predictor coefficients are chosen to minimize the power in the error,  $e_n$ , given by

$$e_n = S_n - \sum_{j=1}^M a_j S_{n-j} \quad (2.1)$$

Thus, the power for an N sample frame is

$$E = \sum_{n=1}^N e_n^2 = \sum_{n=1}^N \left( S_n - \sum_{j=1}^M a_j S_{n-j} \right)^2 \quad (2.2)$$

E is minimized by setting  $\partial E / \partial a_i = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, M$  which results in a system of equations

$$\sum_{n=1}^N S_n S_{n-i} - \sum_{j=1}^M a_j \sum_{n=1}^N S_{n-j} S_{n-i} = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, M \quad (2.3)$$

# TRANSMITTER

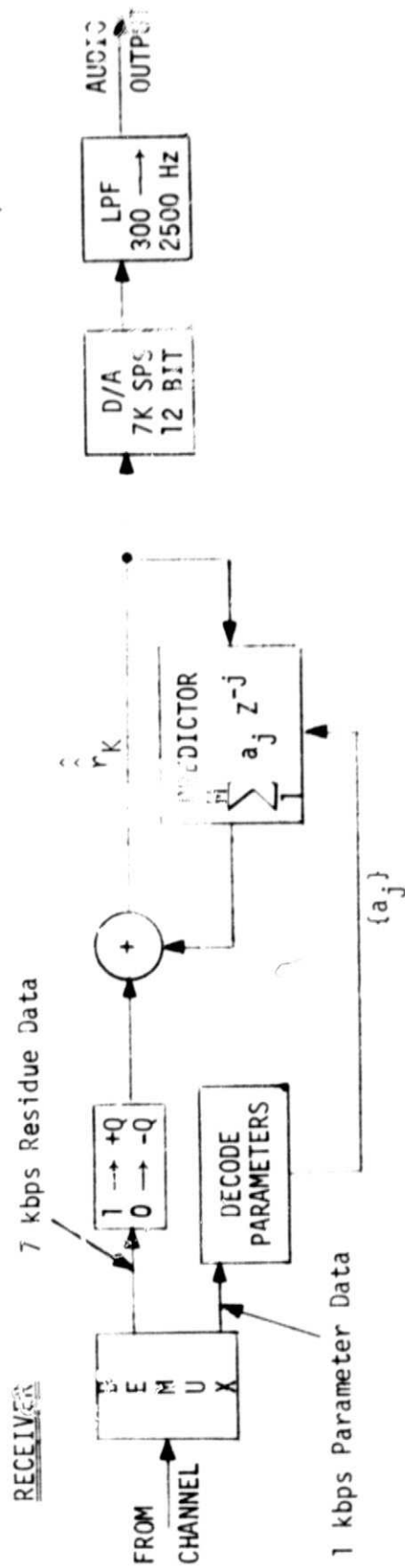
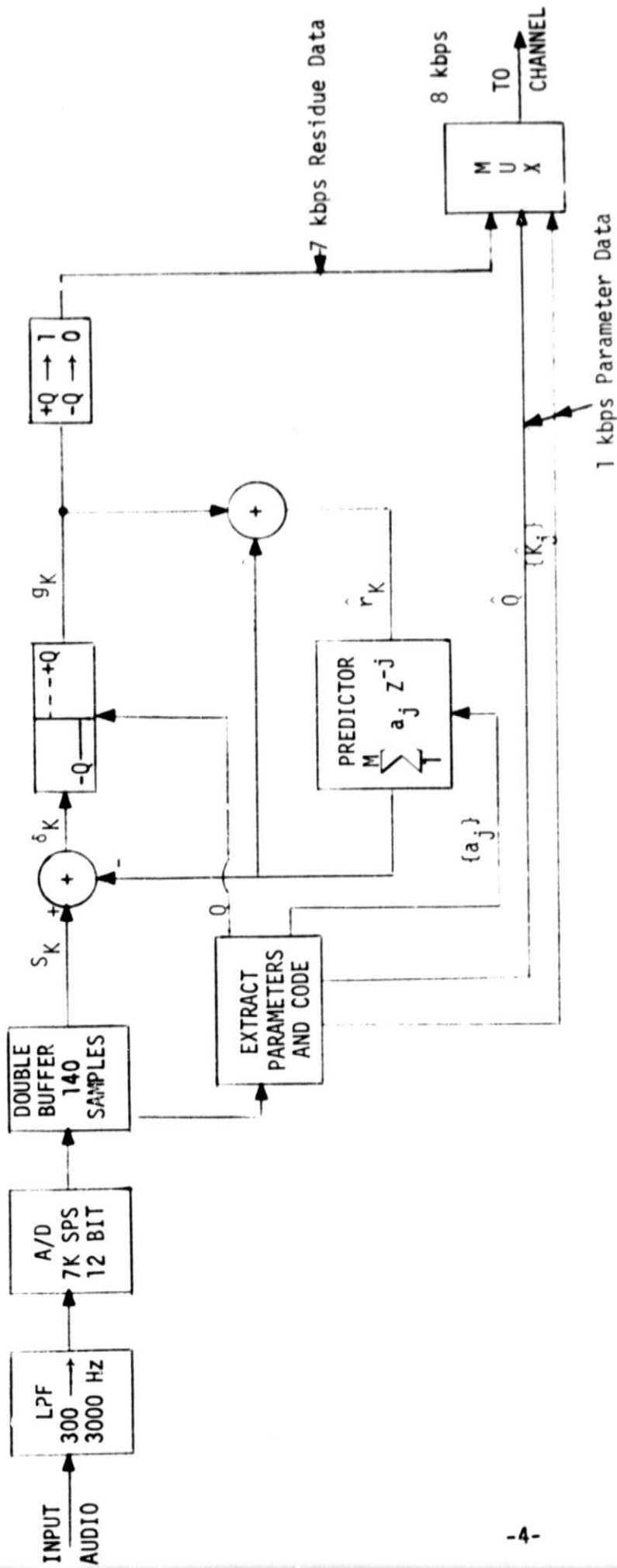


Figure 2.1 System Summary

Several schools of thought exist on the solution of this system. We have chosen the autocorrelation formulation, which yields the simplest solution. For this approach it is assumed that  $S_n = 0$  for  $n < 1$  and  $n > N$ . Thus,

$$\sum_{n=1}^N S_{n-j} S_{n-i} = \sum_{n=1}^{N-|j-i|} S_n S_{n+|j-i|} = R_{|j-i|}, \text{ i.e., each frame}$$

is considered independently from its neighbors. We may re-phrase the problem as follows:

- (1) Compute  $R_i = \sum_{n=1}^{N-i} S_n S_{n+i}$
- (2) Solve  $\sum_{j=1}^M a_j R_{|j-i|} = -R_i \quad i = 1, \dots, M$

Clearly, the correlation coefficients  $R_{|j-i|}$  form a matrix  $[r_{ij}]$  which is symmetric, has all positive entries, and in which all the elements along the diagonal or any off-diagonal are equal. Further, the values  $R_{|j-i|}$  are all chosen from the set  $\{R_0, \dots, R_{M-1}\}$ . Systems of equations involving such a matrix (which is called Toeplitz) are easily solved using a technique known as Levinson's recursion<sup>[2]</sup>. A flowchart for Levinson's recursion is given in Figure 2.2.

Unfortunately, the solution of this system of equations may lead to a formulation of a filter which is unstable, that is, some of the zeros of

$$1 + \sum_{j=1}^M a_j Z^{-j}$$

or equivalently, some of the poles of

$$\frac{1}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^M a_j Z^{-j}}$$



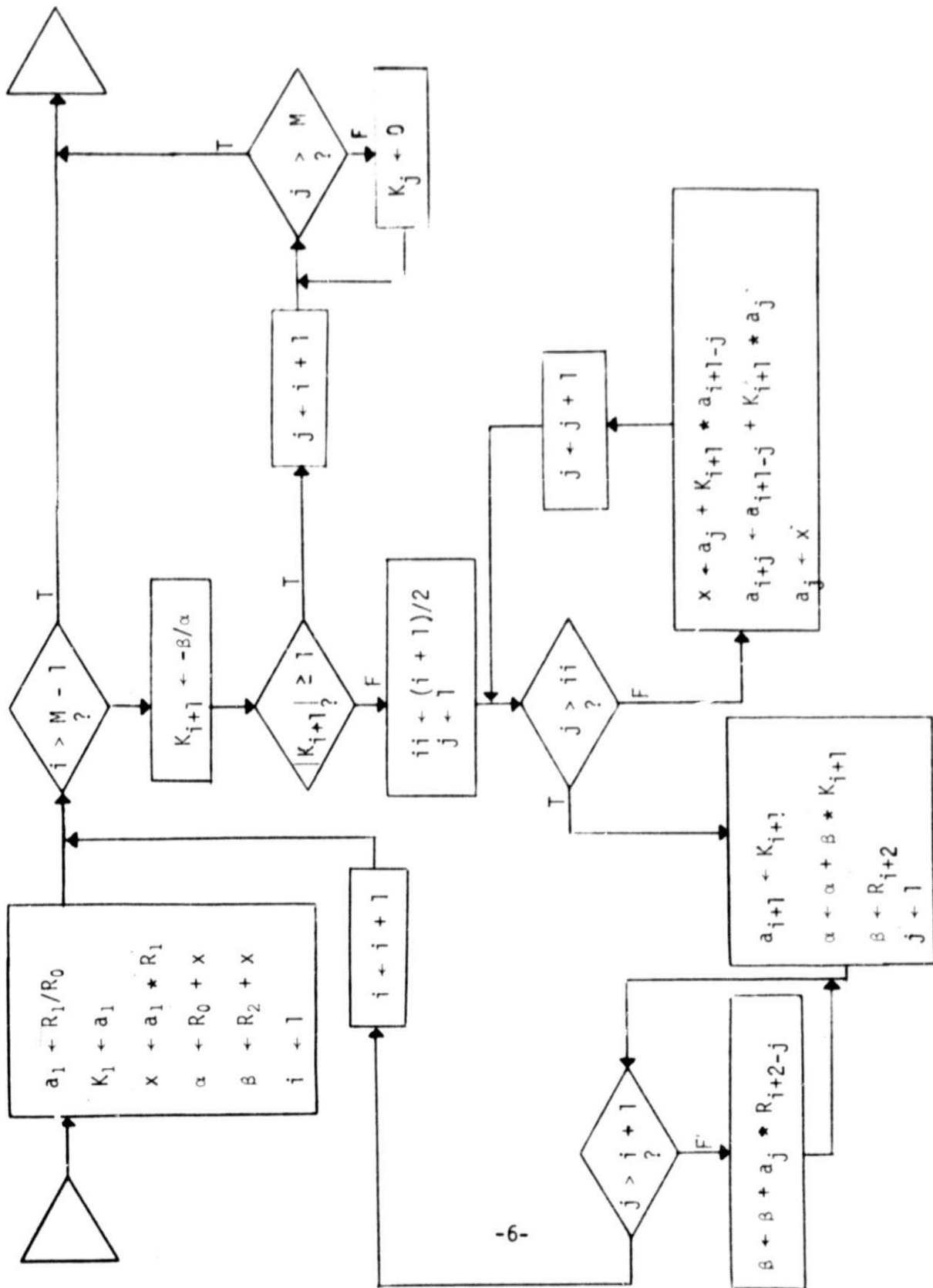


Figure 2.2 Levinson Recursion

may lie outside the unit circle. This is most likely to occur due to round off and truncation errors when the input speech has one or more components with narrow bandwidths. Thus, it is usual to window the frame of speech samples with a function which tapers to zero near the end points of the frame. A nearly equivalent approach which is computationally simpler, is to window the autocorrelation function in such a way as to provide a slight increase in bandwidth in the resulting filter. To a good approximation: If a signal  $S(t)$  has bandwidth  $B$  and autocorrelation function  $R(\tau)$ , then the autocorrelation function  $e^{-\alpha|\tau|}R(\tau)$  corresponds to a signal with bandwidth  $B + 2\alpha$ . The appropriate modification to digital autocorrelation coefficients is

$$\hat{R}_i = \exp \{-\pi F T i\} R_i$$

where  $T$  is the sampling interval in seconds, and  $F$  is the increase in bandwidth in Hz. Values of  $F$  in the range 10 to 50 Hz have been found experimentally to be sufficient to ensure stability. The Levinson recursion is then applied to the values  $\{\hat{R}_i\}$ .

A by-product of the Levinson recursion is a set of  $M$  coefficients

$\{K_j\}_{j=1}^M$ , known as the reflection coefficients. The properties of the reflection coefficients have been studied at length. They are bounded by  $\pm 1$  for stable filters, and thus provide a stability check. Because of this and the fact that a simple algorithm exists for transforming reflection coefficients to predictor coefficients, it is clear that it is the reflection coefficients which should be quantized for transmission. However, it is important that the predictor coefficients used in both the transmitter and receiver be identical in the absence of channel errors. Thus, at the conclusion of the Levinson recursion, the reflection coefficients are quantized, and the quantized values are applied to a short form Levinson procedure (Figure 2.3) to produce a set of predictor coefficients for use in the transmitter's quantizer loop.

Another by-product of the Levinson recursion is the quantity,  $\alpha$ , which measures the power of the prediction error. The rms prediction error per sample is  $\langle e_n^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{\alpha/N}$ . This prediction error gives a good indication of the minimum quantization error  $\langle (q - |\delta_n|)^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ .

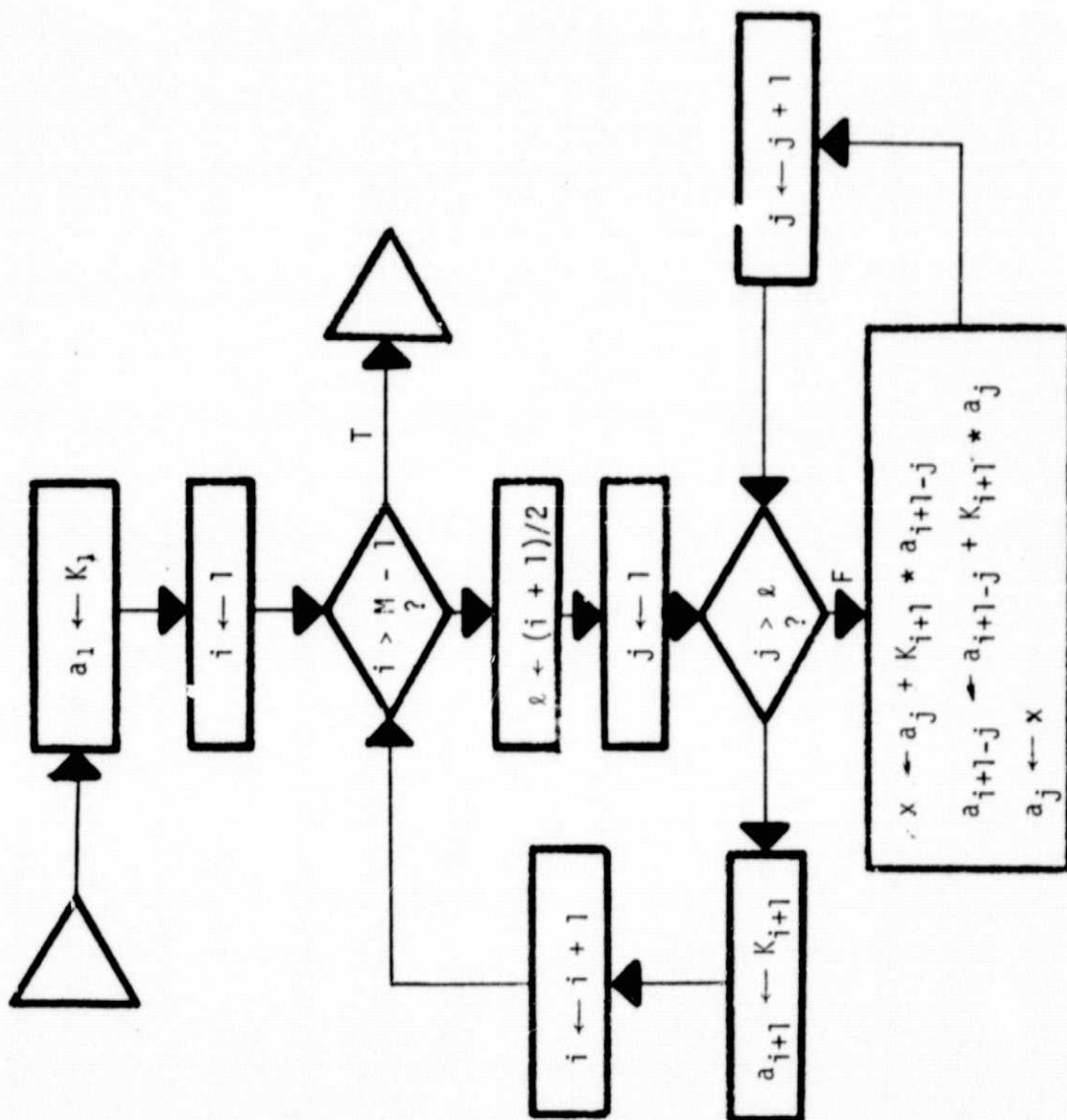


Figure 2.3 Conversion of Reflection Coefficients to Predictor Coefficients

With reference to Figure 2.1, it can be shown that the optimum quantizer setting,  $Q$ , which minimizes quantization error, is given by

$$Q = \langle |\delta_n| \rangle$$

For most voice signals, it has been observed that for reasonable choices of quantizer level,  $Q$ ,

$$\langle |\delta_n| \rangle \cong .7 \langle \delta_n^2 \rangle^{1/2}$$

As the system tracks the input signal,  $S_n$ , the signal  $\hat{r}_n$  is forced to follow the input signal. Thus, the prediction error,  $\delta_n$ , within the loop approximates the theoretical prediction error,  $e_n$ . So a good approximation to the quantizer level is

$$Q = .7 \langle \delta_n^2 \rangle^{1/2} \cong .7 \sqrt{\alpha/N}$$

It has been found experimentally that the ratio  $\alpha/R_0$  of the output power of the ideal predictor to the input power does not exceed 0.36 for voice signals. Thus, this ratio is also used in computing the quantizer level, i.e.,

$$Q = .7 F(\alpha/R_0) \sqrt{\alpha/N}$$

when  $\alpha/R_0$  approaches 1 indicating severe noise in the input,  $F(\alpha/R_0)$  approaches zero, thus reducing the ability of the loop to track the signal.

In the loop, the output of the quantizer is fed back through the predictor thus providing a closed loop prediction system. In addition, the quantizer output (values of  $\pm Q$  only) is converted to a bit stream called the residue at a rate of one bit per sample interval. The residue for each frame is multiplexed with the corresponding coded parameters to give the channel bit stream.

### 2.1.2 Receiver

In the receiver or demodulator, the residue bit stream is converted to a stream of  ${}^+Q$  values and used to drive a synthesis loop (see Figure 2.1). The predictor coefficients which are fixed over a frame, are obtained from the received reflection coefficients by the short Levinson recursion (Figure 2.3).

### 2.1.3 Parameter Encoding

The quantizer level has a wide dynamic range. Thus, it is coded logarithmically. Subjective listening indicated negligible difference between quantization to 4 bits and no quantization. This 4-bit coding scheme was used for all simulations and testing.

The reflection coefficients were coded linearly to 4 bits each. Again, subjective listening tests indicated little if any difference between this quantization scheme and no quantization. Other quantization techniques, such as log bilinear, have been shown to yield a slightly higher quality voice in other types of compression systems. It was felt, however, that the slight improvement that might be obtained here did not justify the additional computational complexity.

### 2.1.4 Baseline System

Preliminary subjective listening tests were used to select the following baseline system:

Sampling Rate: 7 KHz (12 bits/sample)

Frame Time: 20 ms

Parameters:

Q Coded logarithmically to 4 bits

$K_1$  Coded linearly to 4 bits

$K_2$  Coded linearly to 4 bits

$K_3$  Coded linearly to 4 bits

$K_4$  Coded linearly to 4 bits

Total: 20 bits/frame

Data Rate: Parameters 1 Kbps

Residue 7 Kbps

Total 8 Kbps

This is the system that was used for simulation and testing. Detailed tradeoffs of these parameter values are discussed in Section 2.4.

In practice, several bits per frame could be devoted to frame synch. A typical allocation with provision for frame synch is:

Sampling Rate:	6750
Frame Time:	20 ms
Parameters:	20 bits/frame
Synch:	5 bits/frame

#### 2.1.5 Channel Characteristics

In addition to resistance to background noise in the speaker's environment, the resistance of the **system** to channel errors is of importance. In order to determine the effects of the proposed channel, the statistics of burst errors resembling those of a rate 1/3 Viterbi decoder with constraint length 7 were developed for error rates of  $10^{-2}$ ,  $10^{-3}$ , and  $10^{-4}$ . Appendix A describes the channel simulation techniques in detail.

### 2.2 INTEGER SIMULATION OF NASA-APC ALGORITHMS ON INTERDATA 85

An integer simulation of the NASA-APC algorithms was developed on the Interdata 85, a 16-bit machine, in two versions:

IAPCDC: Disk-to-disk I/O

IAPCTC: Tape-to-tape I/O.

The programs are identical except for the I/O subroutines called.

The programs execute NASA-APC transmitter and receiver algorithms, and simulate burst errors (as specified by parameter input) on the communication channel.

The main programs are in FORTRAN and use functions and subroutines to simulate fractional integer arithmetic. The simulation equated + 1 to 32767 and expressed fractions as a proportion of the + 1 base.

The programs require the following parameters during initialization:

M	Number of Coefficients
SR	Sampling Rate
NSPF	Number of Samples per Frame
ERRATE	Channel Error Flag +, Simulate channel errors -, Do not simulate channel errors
FRAC	Quantization Level Gain Control
F	Quantization Level Noise Squelch Control
JAQ <sub>i</sub>	Reflection Coefficient Quantization, $i = 1, 11$
JREC	Number of Input Frames to Skip Before Processing
NUMREC	Number of Frames to Process -, Process to end-of-file
NPC	Maximum Channel Burst Length
EC	Channel: $E_s/N_0$
PC <sub>i</sub>	Probability of Burst of Length $i$ , $i = 1, NPC$
IT <sub>i</sub>	Input Seeds to Random Number Generator $i = 1, 19$

At the end of initialization, the programs inform the operator of the bit rate. If channel errors are simulated, the program prints the total number of errors simulated every 100 frames. When the number of frames designated has been processed, the program prints the number of uses of each burst length and the calculated error rate. A flowchart of the program is given in Figure 2.4.

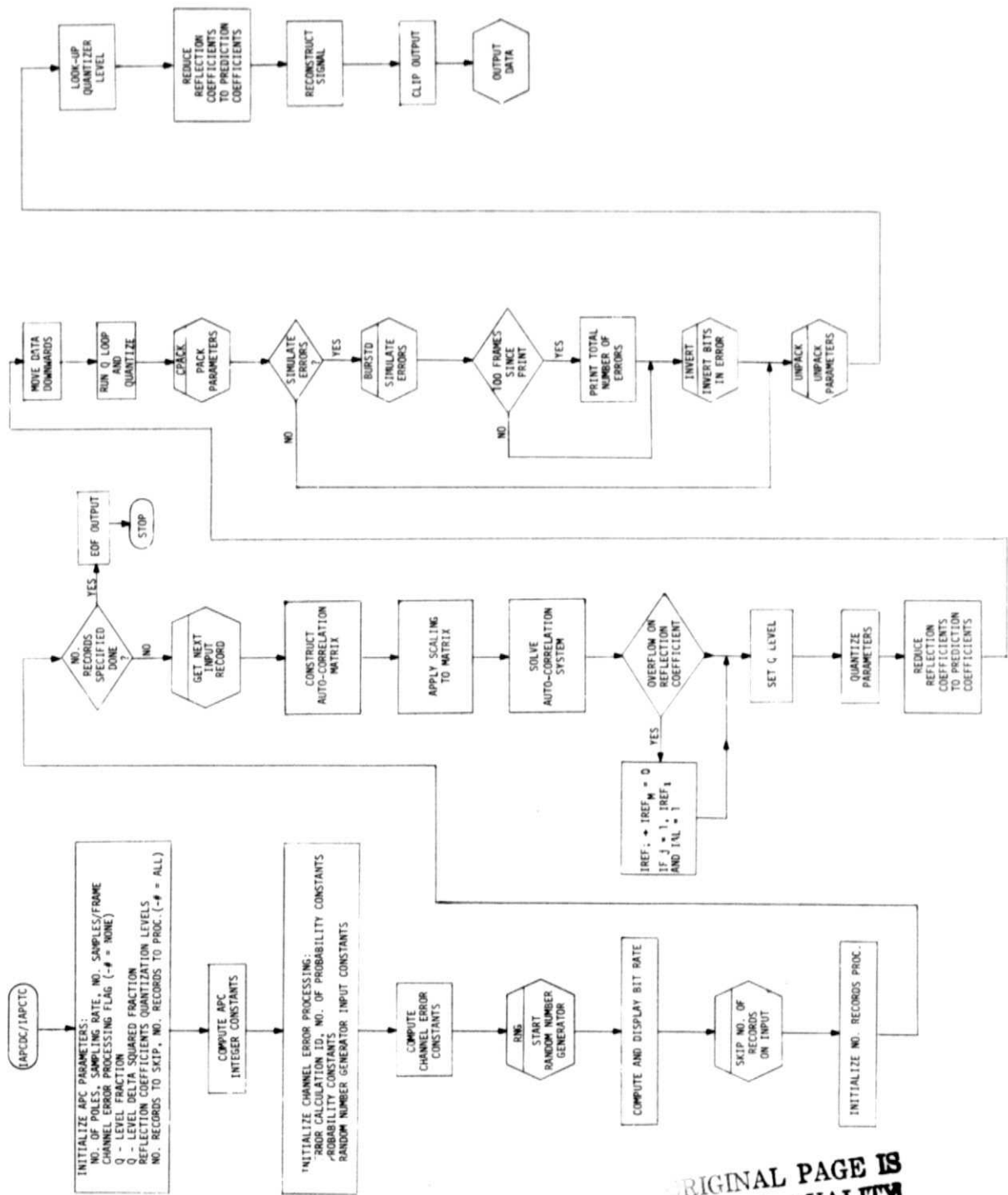


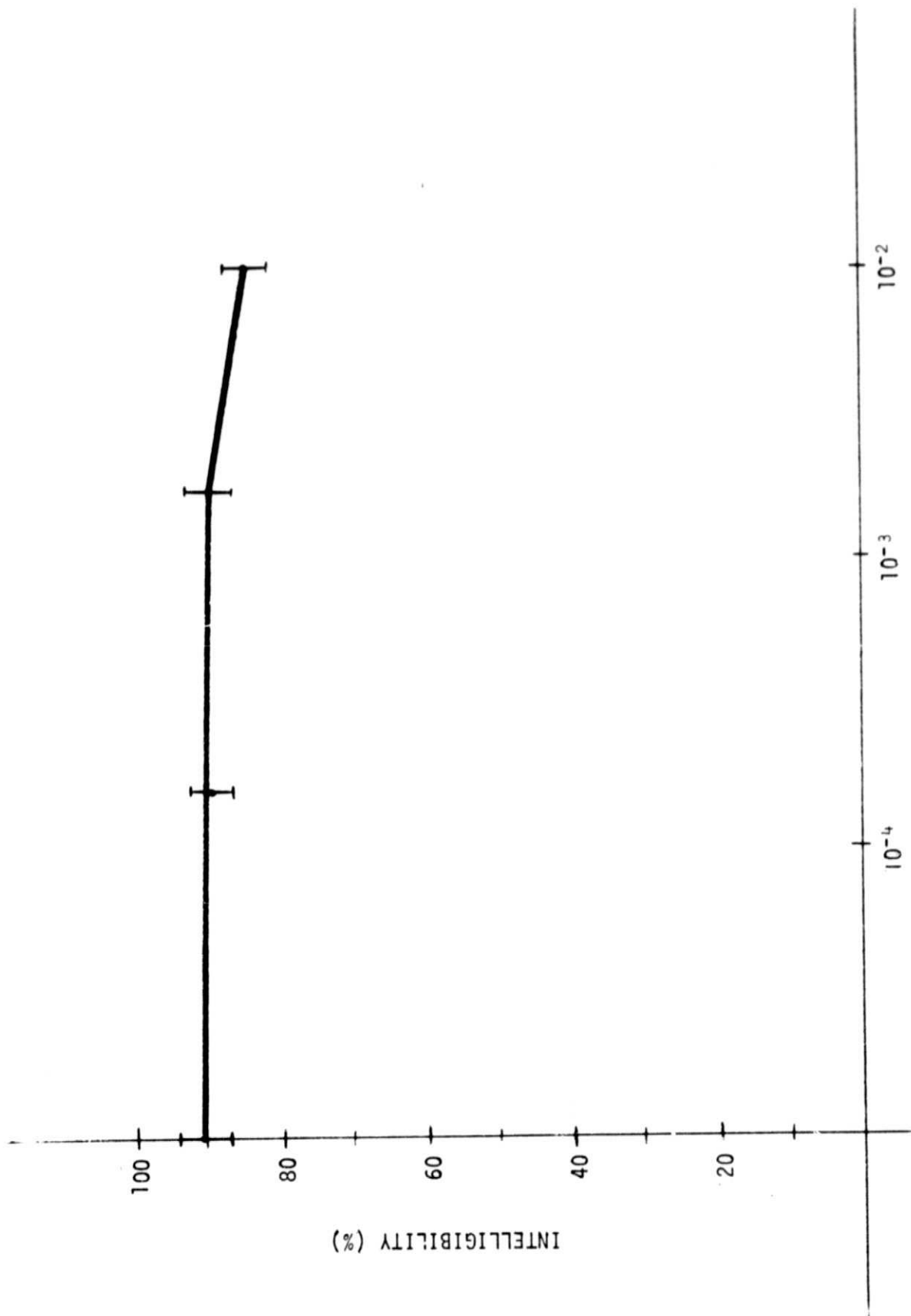
FIGURE 2.4 INTEGER SIMULATION OF APC

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### 2.3 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Although various signal-to-noise ratio measurements were made on the chosen system (see Section 2.4), a much more meaningful measurement of performance was obtained through standardized intelligibility tests performed at Fort Huachuca. These tests were used to determine the intelligibility in the presence of channel errors as well as the intelligibility over an error free channel. The channel simulation used is discussed in Appendix A. Figure 2.5 shows the results obtained for the four channels. As can be seen, error rates as high as  $10^{-3}$  have virtually no effect on intelligibility.



BIT ERROR RATE (BURST ERRORS)

Figure 2.5

## 2.4 TRADEOFFS

In order to optimize the chosen system, several parameters were varied and the signal-to-noise ratio in the transmitter loop was measured on a frame basis. The SNR measurement is defined as

$$\text{SNR} = 10 \log_{10} \left[ \frac{\text{Input Signal Power}}{\text{Quantization Noise Power}} \right]$$

The quantization noise power and the input signal power were each averaged over a frame, and then the SNR for that frame was computed as above. The parameters examined were frame length, number of coefficients, bit allocation (quantization) of coefficients, and the quantizer level scale factor.

The performance was evaluated by examining the signal-to-quantizer noise ratios on 0.6 seconds of speech. The input SNR of the digitized speech was estimated at 30 to 40 dB.

Three frame sizes were examined and the results are shown in Figure 2.6. For the most part, the shortest frame (15 ms) gave slightly higher SNRs on most of the samples. In one region of very rapid transition, the 20 ms frame gave better results than either the 15 or 25 ms frames. This was probably due to the particular alignment of each of the frame boundaries at that instant. Listening indicated no perceptual difference between the three variants.

Figure 2.7 shows the results of comparing three systems: one with 3 coefficients, one with 4, and one with 6. Both the SNRs and listening indicated slight degradation with the use of 3 coefficients, and virtually no difference between the systems with 4 and 6 coefficients. In all three cases each coefficient was quantized to 5 bits.

Since little is gained by using more than 4 coefficients, we next examined bit allocations for 4 coefficients. A total of 16 bits were allocated in four different ways:

Allocation	$K_1$	$K_2$	$K_3$	$K_4$
1	4	4	4	4
2	5	4	4	3
3	5	5	4	2
4	5	5	3	3

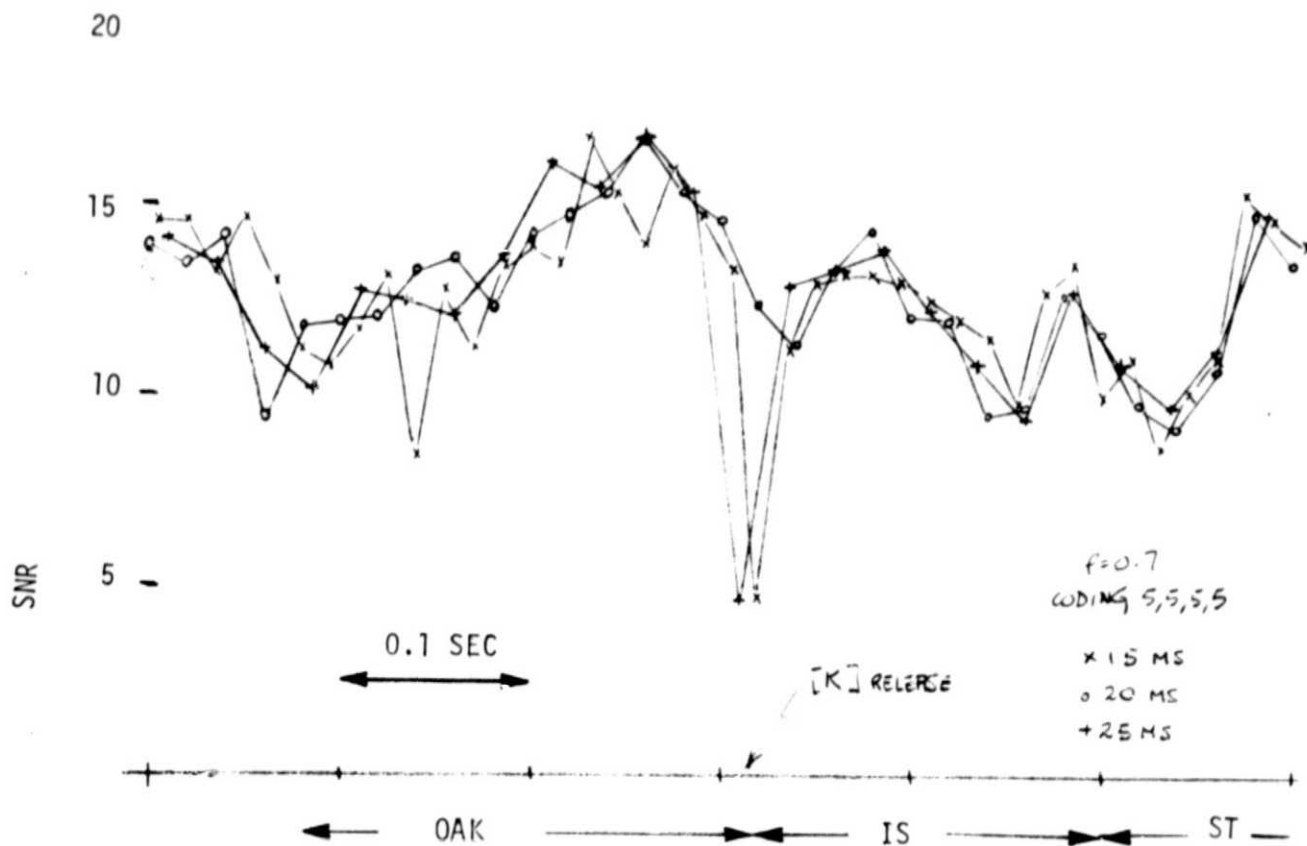


Figure 2.6

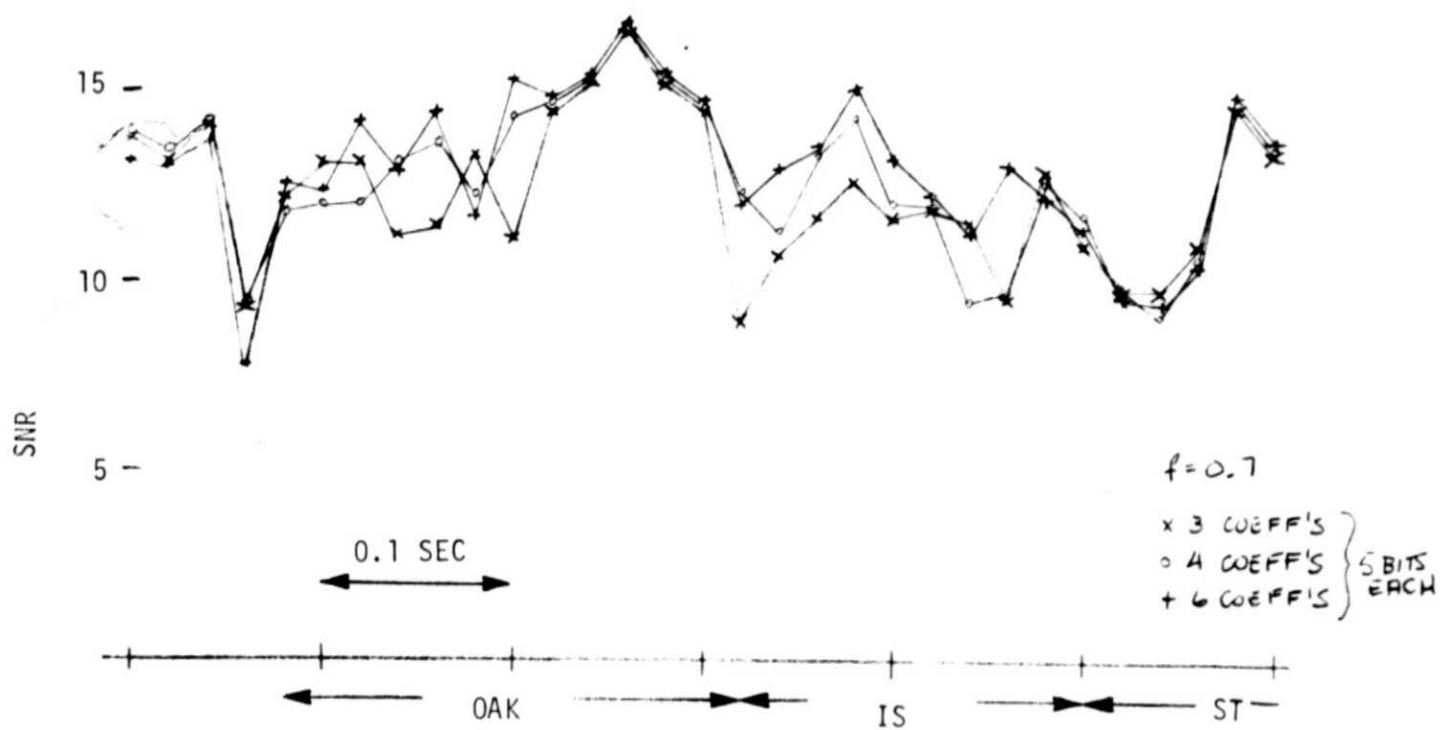


Figure 2.7

The first allocation was judged to be slightly worse than the remaining three which were all roughly equivalent. Figure 2.8 gives the results for the first and fourth allocations.

The final parameter examined was a scale factor used in setting the quantizer level  $Q$ , i.e., the value of  $Q$  before quantization was

$$Q = f \cdot F(\alpha/R_0) \sqrt{\alpha/N}$$

$F(\alpha/R)$  was taken as  $(1 - .9 \frac{\alpha}{R_0})$ . Thus, the theoretically optimum value of  $f$  is 0.73 for errors with Laplacian statistics and 0.82 for errors with Gaussian statistics. In Figure 2.9 the resulting SNRs are shown for four values of  $f$  ranging from 0.5 to 1.1. Although the SNRs indicate that the values 0.7 through 1.1 are roughly equivalent, and 0.5 is superior only on near silence intervals, in fact 0.5 was judged perceptually the most pleasing on all speech. This is probably due to a phenomenon which has been noted elsewhere<sup>[3]</sup>, i.e., that the human ear tolerates the distortion due to slope overload more readily than quantizing noise. In further perceptual evaluation, values of  $f$  in the range 0.4 to 0.5 were found to be the most generally satisfactory.

As a result of the above evaluations, the following alternate baseline was established:

Sampling Rate: 7.0 KSPS

Frame Length: 25 ms

Parameter Encoding:

$K_1$  5 bits

$K_2$  5 bits

$K_3$  3 bits

$K_4$  3 bits

$Q$  4 bits

Total 20 bits

Synch: 5 bits

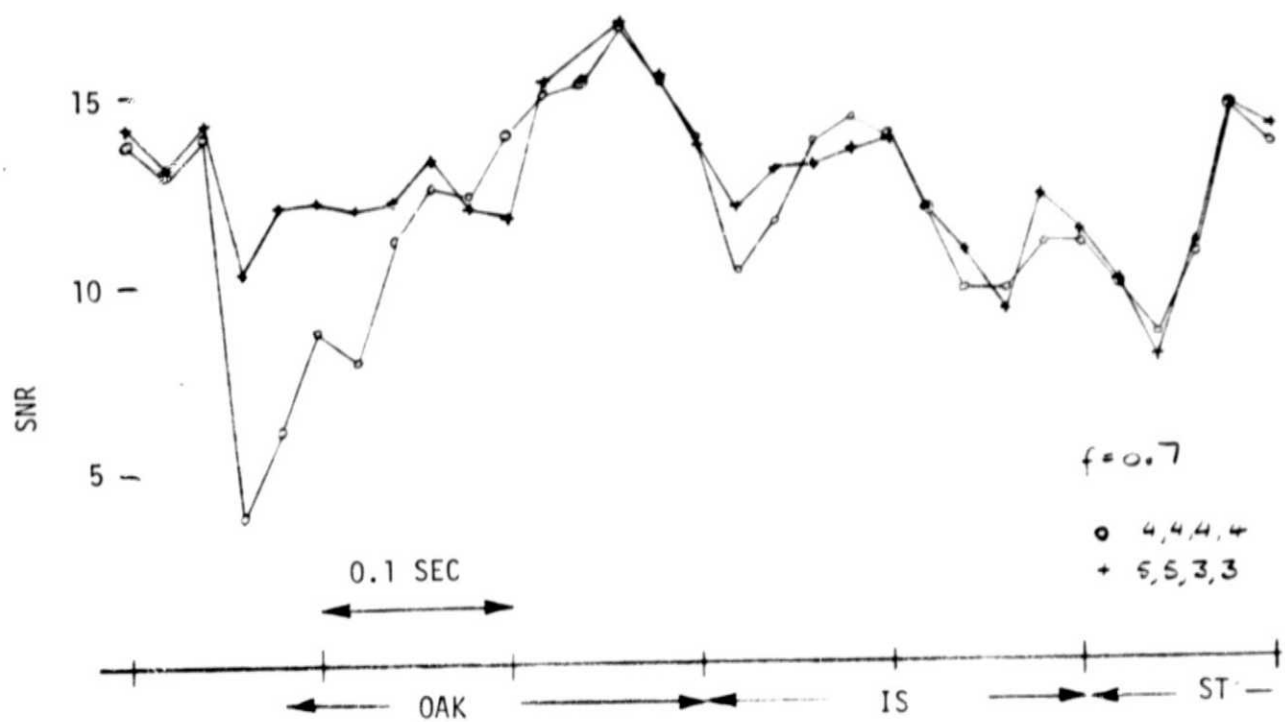


Figure 2.8

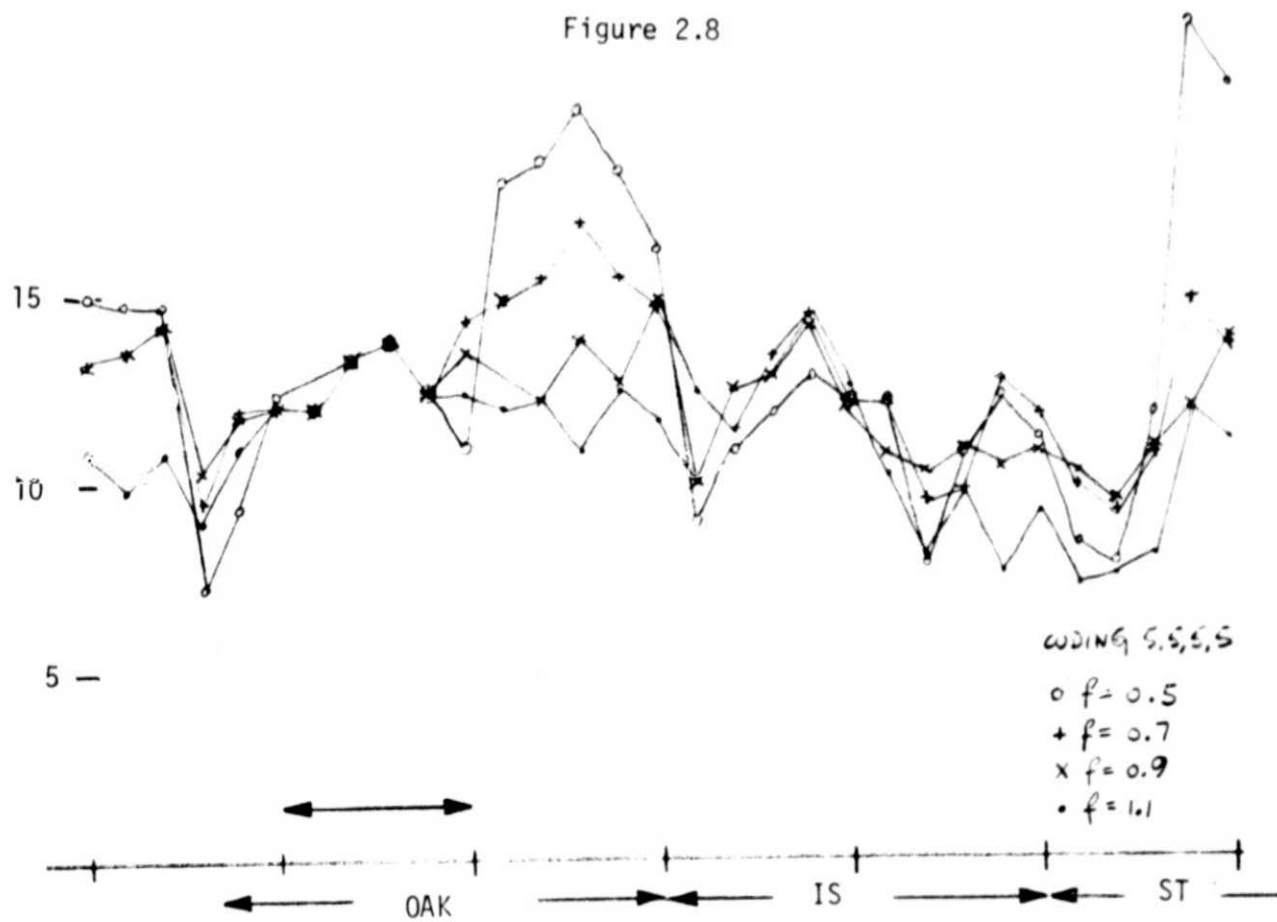


Figure 2.9

Parameter Rate:	800 bps
Synch Rate:	200 bps
Residue Rate:	<u>7000 bps</u>
Total Data Rate:	8000 bps

One tape, an FM news broadcast, was processed using both this system and the baseline used for the other tests. No significant perceptual differences were noticed between the two systems.

The conclusion we reach is that there is substantial flexibility in the allocation of bandwidth in the neighborhood of the original baseline allocation. Minor changes resulting, for example, from the inclusion of either synch or error protection a few parameters would not significantly influence received voice quality.

### 3. IMPLEMENTATION

#### 3.1 NETWORK SIGNAL PROCESSOR INTERFACE

The two voice compression modems utilized in the orbiter NSP are shown in Figure 3.1. The analysis and synthesis functions of each modem are included in a single package, called a 1-AU, to allow sharing of common processing elements. Within the NSP, the voice compression units interface directly with the TDM MUX/DEMUX equipment where the compressed voice is exchanged. Timing information for external framing and clocking the digitized voice into and out of the voice units is provided by the MUX/DEMUX units. Within the units frame synch for the voice algorithm can be provided, or the NSP may provide frame synch signals. The choice between these two options should be based on a study of the overall impact on the NSP hardware (see also Section 3.3). Each unit interfaces with the audio center via two analog voice signals: one from ground to orbiter, and one from orbiter to ground. The data shown are for 8 kbps APC, or the 32/24 kbps VSD currently baselined, which is shown parenthetically.

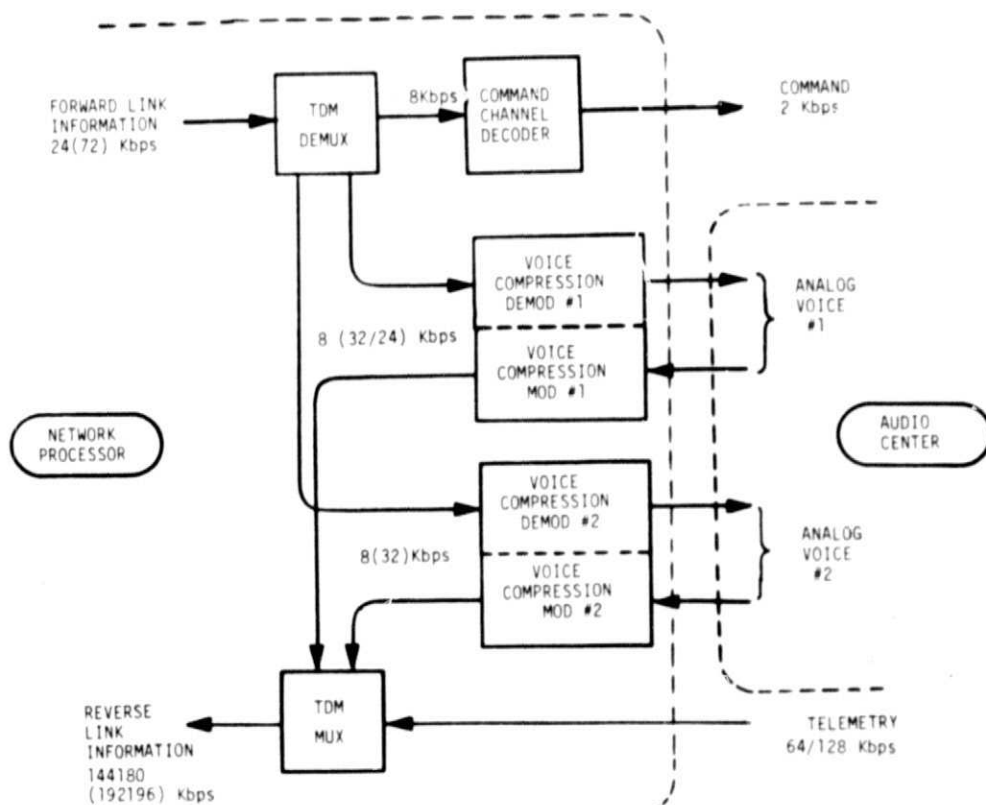


Figure 3.1 Voice Modems and Network Processor



### 3.2 NASA-APC IMPLEMENTATION ON THE 1-AU PROCESSOR

A full-duplex NASA-APC system has been designed for real-time implementation utilizing the 1-AU processor shown in Figure 3.2. A simplified block diagram of a hook-up between two voice processing systems is illustrated in Figure 3.3. The system is designed to start randomly when powered up and run continuously until powered down.

A preliminary coding exercise was performed to provide detailed timing estimates and hardware requirements. The timing estimates were developed on a 300 ns instruction execution time base, and are summarized in Table 3.1.

The 1-AU processor does not have normalize or divide instructions. The APC transmitter algorithms require 1 normalization and 5 divisions per frame. It was determined that these operations could be implemented in the existing software capability without additional hardware.

The APC algorithms used in the integer simulation on the Interdata 85 were converted to the 1-AU processor in a real-time framework augmented by the input/output operations necessary to the system. The sampling rate was modified from 7000 samples per second to 6750 samples per second to accommodate both APC data and synch in the 8000 bits per second communication channel, since this is a worst case configuration. The flowchart presented in Figure 3.4 provides a functional summary of the program.

The input/output of the NASA-APC transmitter is asynchronous to that of the receiver; however, the program will function synchronously. Current transmitter output and receiver input are buffered in the MUX buffers, while the next frames are being processed. The D/A outputs are double-buffered in the RAMs as are the A/D inputs. The latter are double-buffered in both RAMs to provide maximum efficiency during the construction of the autocorrelation matrix (i.e., both the multiplier and the multiplicand can be loaded with one instruction).

Notification of input/output status is via discretes. The execution of the APC algorithms is time-sliced accordingly to ensure proper servicing of the A/D and D/A sampling rate. At a sampling rate of 6750 samples per second, the program is structured to check the I/O status of the A/D and D/A within 148 micro time increments. In the event the A/D status indicates no input available, zeros will be processed.

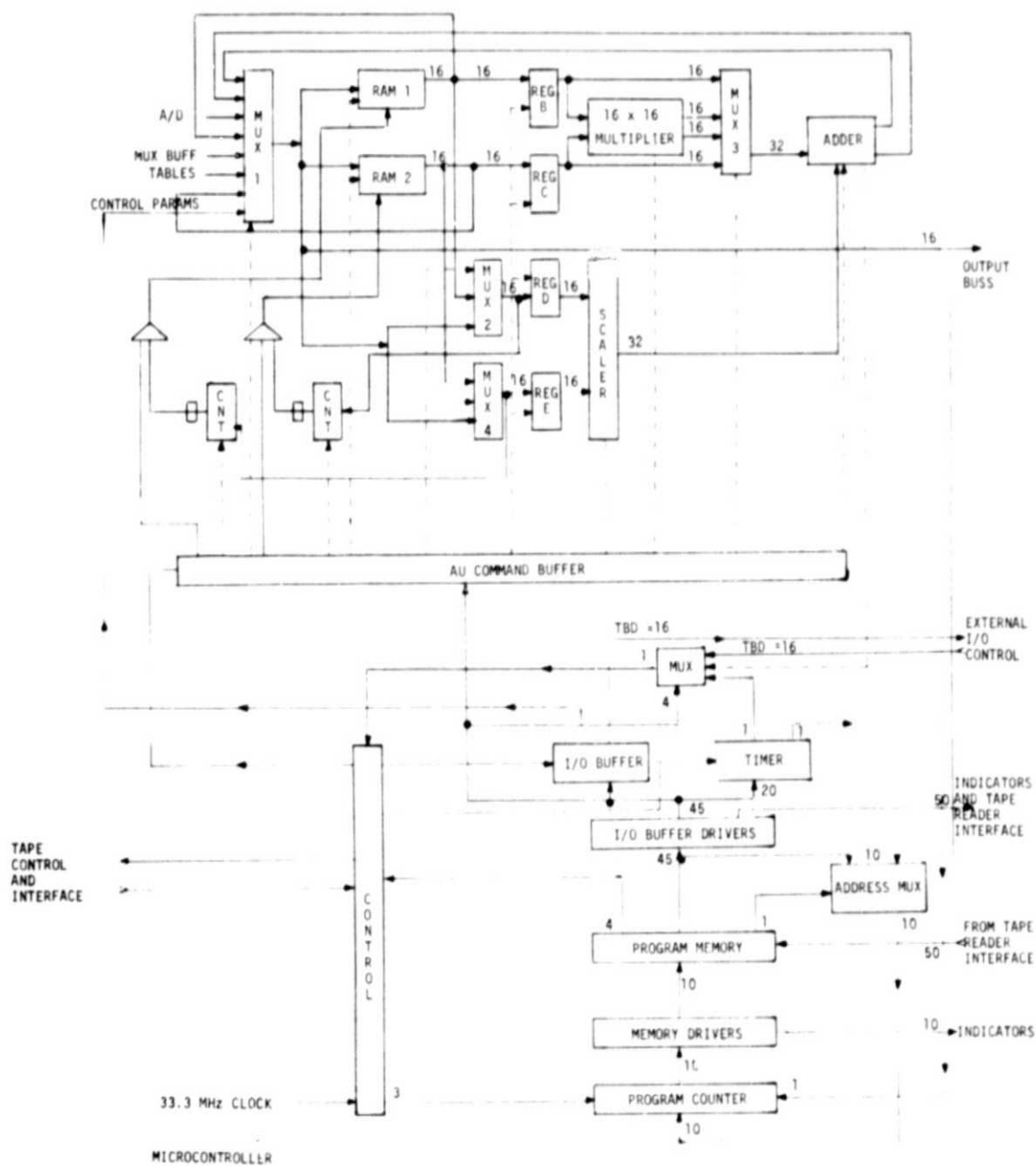


FIGURE 3.2 FUNCTIONAL BLOCK DIAGRAM OF 1-AU PROCESSOR

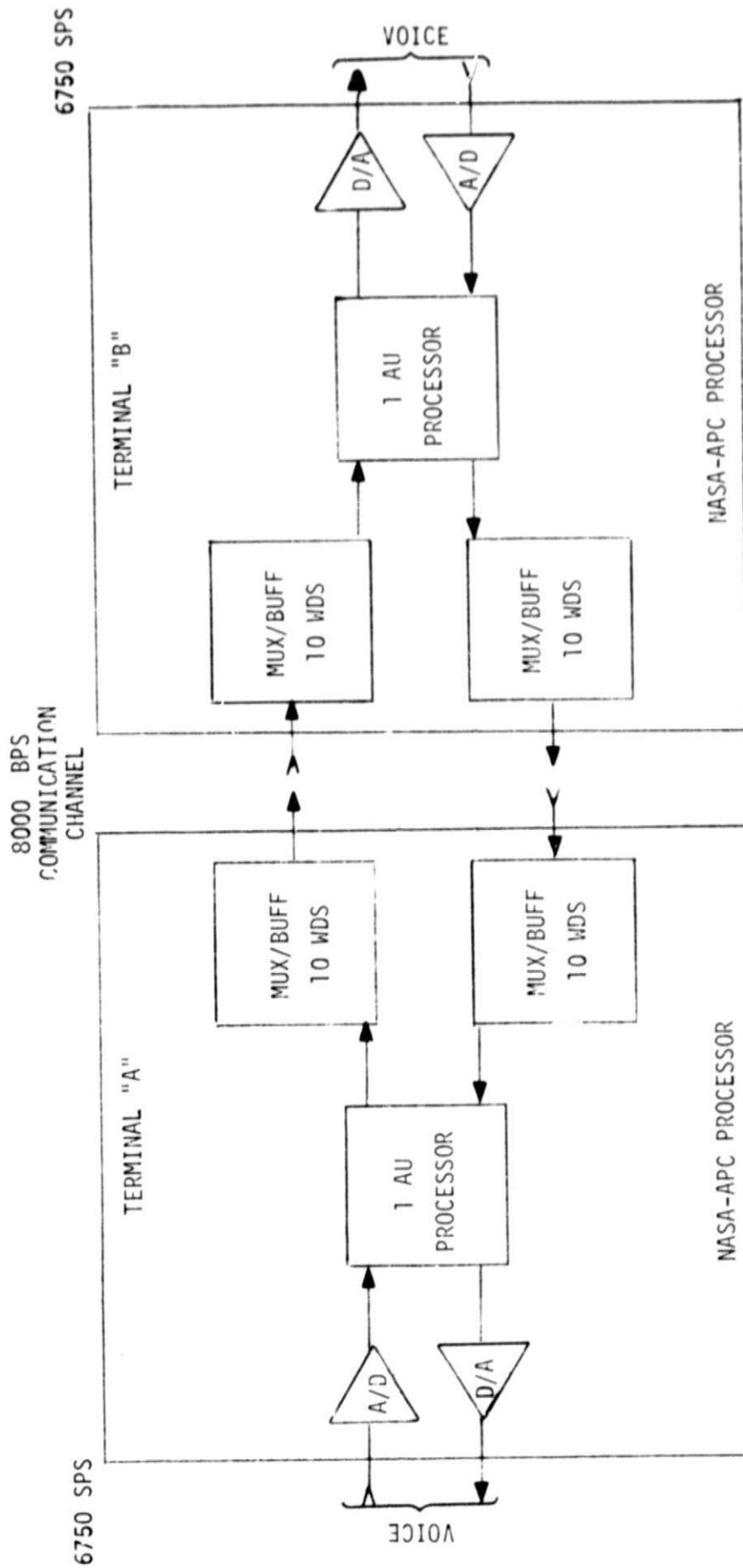


Figure 3.3 Simplified Block Diagram of a Two Terminal NASA-APC Full Duplex Hookup

Table 3.1  
NASA-APC Implementation on 1-AU Processor  
Timing and Sizing Estimates

Function	Op.Cycles	RAM	ROM
Construct Autocorrelation Matrix and Apply Stability Weighting.	3553	146	123
Invert Autocorrelation Matrix	372	7	132
Calculate Quantizer Level	136	22	66
Quantize Reflection Coefficients	16	4	6
Convert Reflection Coefficients to Prediction.	26	4	26
Execute Predictor Filter	3809	145	229
Pack Transmitter Output Buffer	945	10	34
Unpack Receiver Input Buffer	945	10	34
Determine Quantizer & Predictor Coefficients.	30	-	30
Reconstruct Signals	2185	145	85
Clip D/A Output	407	-	6
Refresh RAM Constants	360	-	6
A/D, D/A Input/Output	540	540	540
Service MUX Buffers	40	-	10
Housekeep RAM Buffers	280	-	10
TOTAL	13644	1033	1347

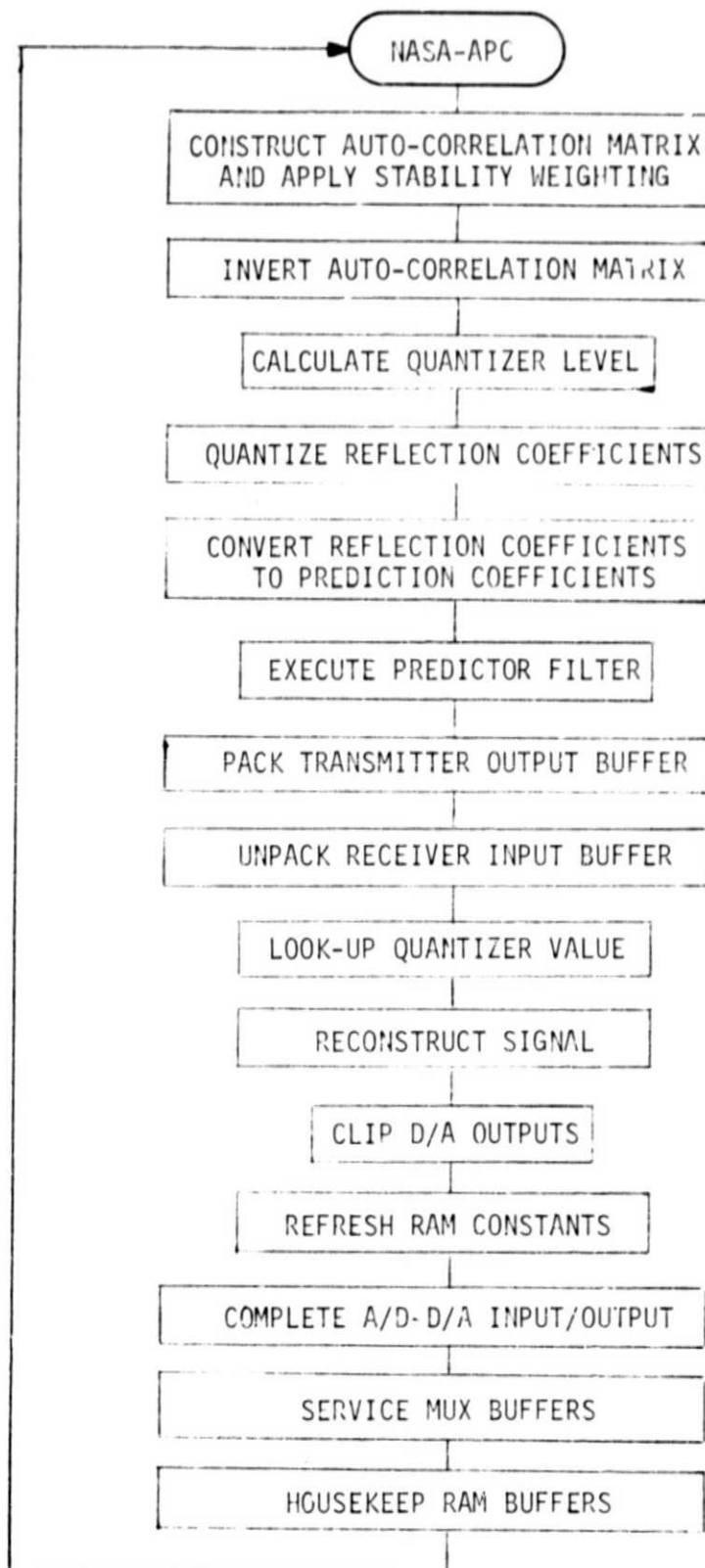


Figure 3.4 Functional Flow Chart of Frame Processing of NASA-APC Implemented on 1 AU Processor

When the APC algorithms have been executed, the remaining frame time is spent completing the A/D and D/A input/output, switching buffer references, and housekeeping the MUX buffers. If the status of the receiver MUX buffer indicates no data available, zeros will be processed.

### 3.3 FLIGHT HARDWARE CONFIGURATION

The functional configuration assumed for flight operation is shown in Figure 3.5. The framing shown corresponds to the baseline described in Sections 2.1.4 and 3.2. The APC analysis and synthesis would be accomplished on a 1-AU unit as described in Section 3.2.

A preliminary IC count including MSI and LSI is:

Frame Synch & NSP Interface	20 ICs
Serial/Parallel & Parallel/Serial	6 ICs
1-AU	158 ICs
A/D, D/A & Buffers	<u>10 ICs</u>
Total	194 ICs

Since the sizing in Section 3.2 indicates 20% busy and 80% dead time at a 300 ns cycle time, a cycle time of 1  $\mu$ sec would yield a 68% busy status. This would permit implementation in C-MOS. Figuring from a 100 mw per chip average power dissipation for C-MOS, this gives a total power consumption of roughly 20 watts per full duplex voice unit. At standard flight hardware packing densities of 55 IC per 20.32 cm x 15.24 cm (8"x6") board, four boards would be required. These four boards may be mounted in a module, roughly 5.08 cm x 15.24 cm x 20.32 cm (2"x6"x8") weighing 1.1 kg (2-1/2 lbs.).

The only effect of removing frame synch, i.e., assuming it is provided by the NSP, is to decrease the chip count to 175 ICs.

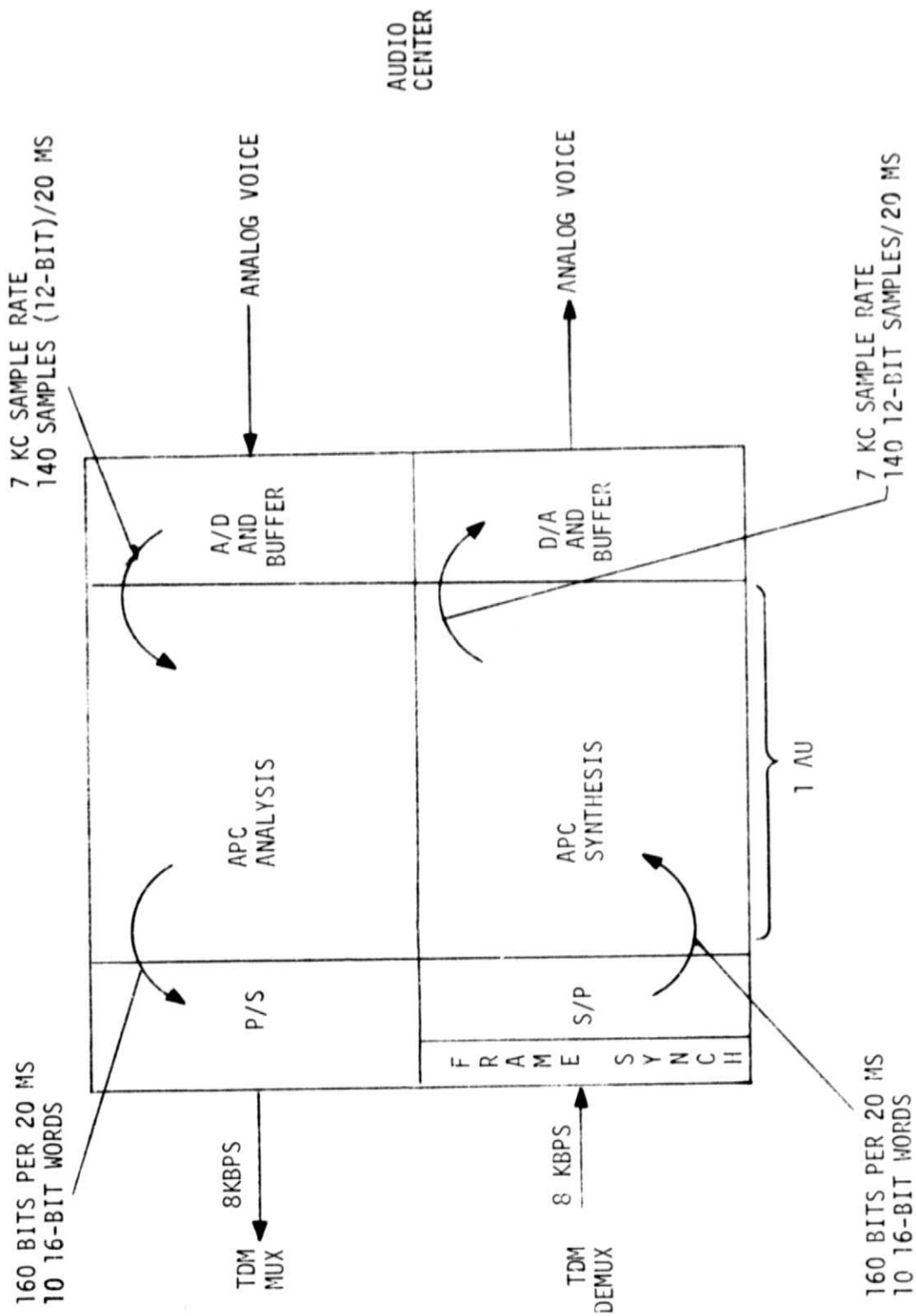


Figure 3.5



## 4. RECOMMENDATIONS

### 4.1 BASELINE

The following allocation represents a base point about which variations are possible to accommodate synch, error protection, or minor changes in the NSP baseline:

Sampling rate        7 kbps

Frame rate           50 Hz

Parameters:

$K_1$ : 5 bits

$K_2$ : 5 bits

$K_3$ : 3 bits

$K_4$ : 3 bits

Q : 4 bits

RESIDUE: 7 kbps

PARAMETERS: 1 kbps

---

TOTAL DATA RATE: 8 kbps

### 4.2 FUTURE WORK

Tests conducted on similar systems have indicated that the received voice quality is particularly sensitive to errors in certain of the parameter bits. Thus, an obvious possibility which should be examined is the allocation of a portion of the allowed data rate to error correction. This could best be accomplished by first determining the relative sensitivity of the received voice to errors in each of the parameter bits and then applying coding beginning with the most sensitive bits and proceeding toward the least sensitive until an optimum is found for a typically noisy channel. Since the optimum split between information and redundancy rates is probably dependent on channel characteristics, different techniques might be used on the uplink and downlink.

Another area worthy of investigation is the portion of the algorithm which sets the quantizer level. Results obtained so far indicate that this is the most sensitive part of the algorithm, and that an optimum technique

has yet to be developed. A systematic examination of the effects of the quantizer level on various signal types is needed to derive a truly optimum setting. Once this optimum setting is derived the technique would be refined to provide noise squelch specific to the orbiter environment.

## REFERENCES

- [1] B. S. Atal & S. L. Hanauer, "Speech Analysis & Synthesis by Linear Prediction of the Speech Wave", JASA, Vol. 50 No. 2, p.2, 1971 .
- [2] J. D. Markel & A. H. Gray, "On Autocorrelation Equations as Applied to Speech Analysis", IEEE Trans. on Audio & Electro-Acoustics, Vol. AV-21, pp 69-79, April 1973.
- [3] N. S. Jayant & A. E. Rosenberg, "The Preference of Slope Overload to Granularity in the Delta Modulation of Speech", BSTJ, Vol. 50, #10, pp 3117-3125, December 1971.

## APPENDIX A. SIMULATION OF CHANNEL ERROR STATISTICS

It was assumed that the APC bit stream would be transmitted using an optimum rate 1/3, constraint length 7 convolutional code. Dr. Gaylord Huth of Axiomatix provided an algorithm for generation of upper bounds on the probability of burst of errors as a function of  $E_s/N_0$  and burst length. The probability of a burst of length  $b$  can be upper bounded by

$$Q_b = \sum_{k=k_{b, \min}}^{k_{b, \max}} n_{bk} P_k$$

where  $P_k$  is the probability of incorrectly choosing a weight  $k$  code word over the all zeroes code word, and  $n_{b, k}$  is the number of weight  $k$  code words caused by bursts of length  $b$ .  $P_k$  is given by

$$P_k = \int_{\sqrt{2kE_s/N_0}}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-t^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} dt = Q\left(\sqrt{\frac{2kE_s}{N_0}}\right)$$

$n_{bk}$  depends on the code used and there is no general formula for computing it. For the code assumed here

$$n_{1, j} = \begin{cases} 1 & j = 14 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$n_{2, j} = \begin{cases} 1 & j = 16 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

The Fortran version of an algorithm supplied by Axiomatix is shown in Figure A.1. This program was used to generate values of  $n_{b,k}$  for  $b > 2$ , and  $Q_b$  for all values of  $b$ .

The total probability of error at the output of the Viterbi decoder can

ORIGINAL PAGE IS  
OF POOR QUALITY

```

0001 C SOURCE IS IN COORDIN SU 1.0
0002 0004R INTEGER*2 IS(200)
0003 0004R DIMENSION IN(200)
0004 0004R DATA IS/200*0
0005 0100R ISUM=0
0006 0100R INBC=0
0007 0100R INP=1
0008 0100R ISTART=1
0009 0100R WRITE(5,100)
0010 0100R 100 FORMAT(' ENTER ES/NO .F7 5')
0011 0100R READ(5,101)XX
0012 0200R 101 FORMAT(F7 5)
0013 0200R CALL REJECT
0014 0200R WRITE(3,102)XX
0015 0200R 102 FORMAT(1X,'***** ES/NO= .F7 5. *****')
0016 0200R XX=2+XX
0017 0200R P111=OF(SORT(14+XX))
0018 0200R IB=1
0019 0200R P222=OF(SORT(16+XX))
0020 0200R WRITE(3,7)IB,P111
0021 0200R IB=2
0022 0200R WRITE(3,7)IB,P222
0023 0200R P2=0
0024 0200R P2=1 5+P111
0025 0200R P2=P2+2+P222
0026 0200R IS(7)=1
0027 0200R CN L RSHFTD(ISTART,16)
0028 0200R IZER=0
0029 0200R CALL RSHFTD(IZER,16)
0030 0200R ISIX=6
0031 0200R CALL RSHFTD(ISIX,16)
0032 0200R DO 1 IB=3,20
0033 0200R WRITE(3,6)
0034 0200R 6 FORMAT(' 0. ' B L WEIGHT NO OF COORDS')
0035 0200R P=0
0036 0200R DO 10 I=1,200
0037 0200R CALL EQU4(IZER,IN(I))
0038 0200R 10 CONTINUE
0039 0200R IB2=IB-2
0040 0200R IS(IB+6)=1
0041 C
0042 C NN IS TH N-1 COUNT
0043 0400R CALL EQU4(IZER,NN)
0044 C NB=2+(IB2)
0045 0400R CALL EQU4(ISTART,NB)
0046 0400R CALL LSHFTD(NB,IB2)
0047 C
0048 C J1 IS THE COUNT DOWN INDEX
0049 0400R CALL EQU4(NB,J1)
0050 C KK=N-1
0051 0400R CALL EQU4(IZER,KK)
0052 0400R 2 CALL ISUEDP(J1,J1,ISTART)
0053 C IF NEGATIVE LOOP DONE
0054 0400R 31 IF(J1)20,31,31
0055 0400R 31 DO 20 I=1,IB2
0056 0400R IS(I+7)=0
0057 C J=2+(IB2-1)
0058 0400R CALL EQU4(ISTART,J)
0059 0400R J3=IB2-1
0060 0400R CALL LSHFTD(J,J3)
0061 C IF(KK LT J)GO TO 20
0062 0400R CALL EQU4(KK,KK1)
0063 0400R CALL ISUEDP(KK1,KK1,J)
0064 0400R IF(KK1)20,21,21
0065 0400R 21 IS(I+7)=1
0066 C KK=KK-J
0067 0500R CALL EQU4(KK1,KK)
0068 C
0069 0500R 20 CONTINUE
0070 0500R ID=IB+6
0071 0500R ISUM=0
0072 0500R DO 3 I=1,IB6
0073 0500R I11=I+6
0074 0500R ISUM5=IS(I11)+IS(I+5)+IS(I+3)+IS(I+2)+IS(I)
0075 0500R ISUM1=0
0076 0500R IF(IAND(ISUM5,IAN))111,111,112
0077 0500R 112 ISUM1=1
0078 0500R 111 ISUM5=IS(I11)+IS(I+3)+IS(I+2)+IS(I+1)+IS(I)
0079 0500R ISUM2=0
0080 0500R IF(IAND(ISUM5,IAN))222,222,223
0081 0500R 223 ISUM2=1
0082 0500R 222 ISUM5=IS(I11)+IS(I+4)+IS(I+1)+IS(I)
0083 0500R ISUM2=0
0084 0500R IF(IAND(ISUM5,IAN))3,3,334
0085 0500R 334 ISUM2=1
0086 0500R 3 ISUM=ISUM+ISUM1+ISUM2+ISUM3
0087 0500R J=ISUM/2-6
0088 0500R CALL IRACDP(IAL,IN,ISTART)
0089 0500R CALL EQU4(IN,KK)
0090 0500R CALL IRACDP(INCJ,INCJ,ISTART)
0091 0500R GO TO 2
0092 30 MM=0
0093 0500R CALL EQU4(IZER,JSUM)
0094 0500R MM=MM+1
0095 0500R M=(MM+6)*2
0096 0500R C=FLOAT4(INCMM)
0097 0500R WRITE(3,5)IB,M,C
0098 0500R 5 FORMAT(17,110,E20,12)
0099 0500R P=P+C+OF(SORT(INCMM))
0100 0500R CALL IRACDP(JSUM,INCMM)
0101 0500R CALL EQU4(JSUM,INBC)
0102 0500R CALL ISUEDP(INBC,INBC,NB)
0103 0500R IF(INBC)4,40,40
0104 0500R 40 WRITE(3,7)IB,P
0105 0500R 7 FORMAT(1X,'P=12. ' .E15 5)
0106 0500R PB=(FLOAT(10)/2)*1+P
0107 0500R P2=P2+PB
0108 0500R CONTINUE
0109 0500R WRITE(3,8)P2
0110 0500R 8 FORMAT(1X,' P2= .E15 5)
0111 0500R END

```

FIGURE A.1

be upper bounded by

$$P_e < Q_1 + \sum_{b=2}^{\infty} Q_b \left( \frac{b-2}{2} + 2 \right)$$

This upper bound assumes that a burst begins and ends with a "1" and contains a random binary sequence between the two end points. In fact, a burst as defined for this code contains no more than six consecutive zeroes at any point internal to the burst. Thus,  $P_e$  as given above is upper bounded in both  $Q_b$  and its weighting factor. An approximation to  $P_e$  is also computed by the program in Figure A.1 as

$$\hat{P}_e = Q_1 + \sum_{b=2}^N Q_b \left( \frac{b-2}{2} + 2 \right)$$

where  $N$  is the maximum value of  $b$  used.

Due to the excessive execution time of the program for burst lengths longer than 20, it was not practical to compute values of  $Q_b$  beyond that point. However, for  $E_s/N_0 \leq 0.6$  [i.e.,  $P_e \geq 10^{-3}$ ], bursts of these longer lengths are nearly as probable as shorter bursts. Efforts to approximate the probabilities of longer bursts were not successful, hence the curves for  $Q_b$  versus  $b$  were extrapolated to larger values of  $b$  until the value of  $\hat{P}_e$  was approximately the predicted error rate. Table A.1 gives the values of  $Q_b$ ,  $\hat{P}_e$ , and the probability of error observed in the simulation for  $E_s/N_0 = 0.52$ , 0.6, and 0.7. Figure A.2 shows calculated and extrapolated values of  $Q_b$ .

The routine for simulating the burst errors acts as a two state device where the first state represents the generation of a string of zeroes and the second state represents the generation of a burst. The burst generation state is entered with probability  $P = \sum_{b=1}^N Q_b$  where  $N$  is the maximum burst length being used. The distance between bursts is a random variable uniformly distributed on  $(0, 2/P)$ . Thus, the average distance between bursts is  $1/P$ . When the burst generation state is entered, a burst length,  $J$ , is randomly chosen according to the conditional distribution  $\{Q_b/P\}$ . Then a "1" is generated followed by  $J-2$  "0"s and "1"s which are equally likely unless six "0"s have been generated in succession, at which time a "1" is forced.

Table A.1

## Calculated and Observed Probabilities

	$E_s/N_0 = .52$	$E_s/N_0 = .6$	$E_s/N_0 = .7$
b	$Q_b$	$Q_b$	$Q_b$
1	$.68 \times 10^{-4}$	$.25 \times 10^{-4}$	$.59 \times 10^{-5}$
2	$.23 \times 10^{-4}$	$.60 \times 10^{-5}$	$.11 \times 10^{-5}$
3	$.30 \times 10^{-4}$	$.76 \times 10^{-5}$	$.14 \times 10^{-5}$
4	$.71 \times 10^{-4}$	$.18 \times 10^{-4}$	$.35 \times 10^{-5}$
5	$.65 \times 10^{-4}$	$.16 \times 10^{-4}$	$.29 \times 10^{-5}$
6	$.40 \times 10^{-4}$	$.82 \times 10^{-5}$	$.12 \times 10^{-5}$
7	$.44 \times 10^{-4}$	$.83 \times 10^{-5}$	$.11 \times 10^{-5}$
8	$.56 \times 10^{-4}$	$.10 \times 10^{-4}$	$.14 \times 10^{-5}$
9	$.47 \times 10^{-4}$	$.78 \times 10^{-5}$	$.96 \times 10^{-6}$
10	$.51 \times 10^{-4}$	$.80 \times 10^{-5}$	$.95 \times 10^{-6}$
11	$.47 \times 10^{-4}$	$.65 \times 10^{-5}$	$.67 \times 10^{-6}$
12	$.48 \times 10^{-4}$	$.61 \times 10^{-5}$	$.59 \times 10^{-6}$
13	$.47 \times 10^{-4}$	$.54 \times 10^{-5}$	$.50 \times 10^{-6}$
14	$.46 \times 10^{-4}$	$.48 \times 10^{-5}$	$.41 \times 10^{-6}$
15	$.46 \times 10^{-4}$	$.44 \times 10^{-5}$	$.35 \times 10^{-6}$
16	$.45 \times 10^{-4}$	$.39 \times 10^{-5}$	$.30 \times 10^{-6}$
17	$.46 \times 10^{-4}$	$.35 \times 10^{-5}$	$.18 \times 10^{-6}$
18	$.45 \times 10^{-4}$	$.33 \times 10^{-5}$	
19	$.44 \times 10^{-4}$	$.30 \times 10^{-5}$	
20	$.44 \times 10^{-4}$	$.27 \times 10^{-5}$	
21	$.43 \times 10^{-4}$	$.25 \times 10^{-5}$	
22	$.43 \times 10^{-4}$	$.22 \times 10^{-5}$	
23	$.42 \times 10^{-4}$	$.20 \times 10^{-5}$	
24	$.42 \times 10^{-4}$	$.17 \times 10^{-5}$	
25	$.42 \times 10^{-4}$	$.15 \times 10^{-5}$	
26	$.41 \times 10^{-4}$	$.13 \times 10^{-5}$	
27	$.41 \times 10^{-4}$	$.12 \times 10^{-5}$	
28	$.40 \times 10^{-4}$	$.11 \times 10^{-5}$	
PREDICTED ERROR RATE	$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$.92 \times 10^{-3}$	$.82 \times 10^{-4}$
ACTUAL ERROR RATE	$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.7 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.62 \times 10^{-4}$

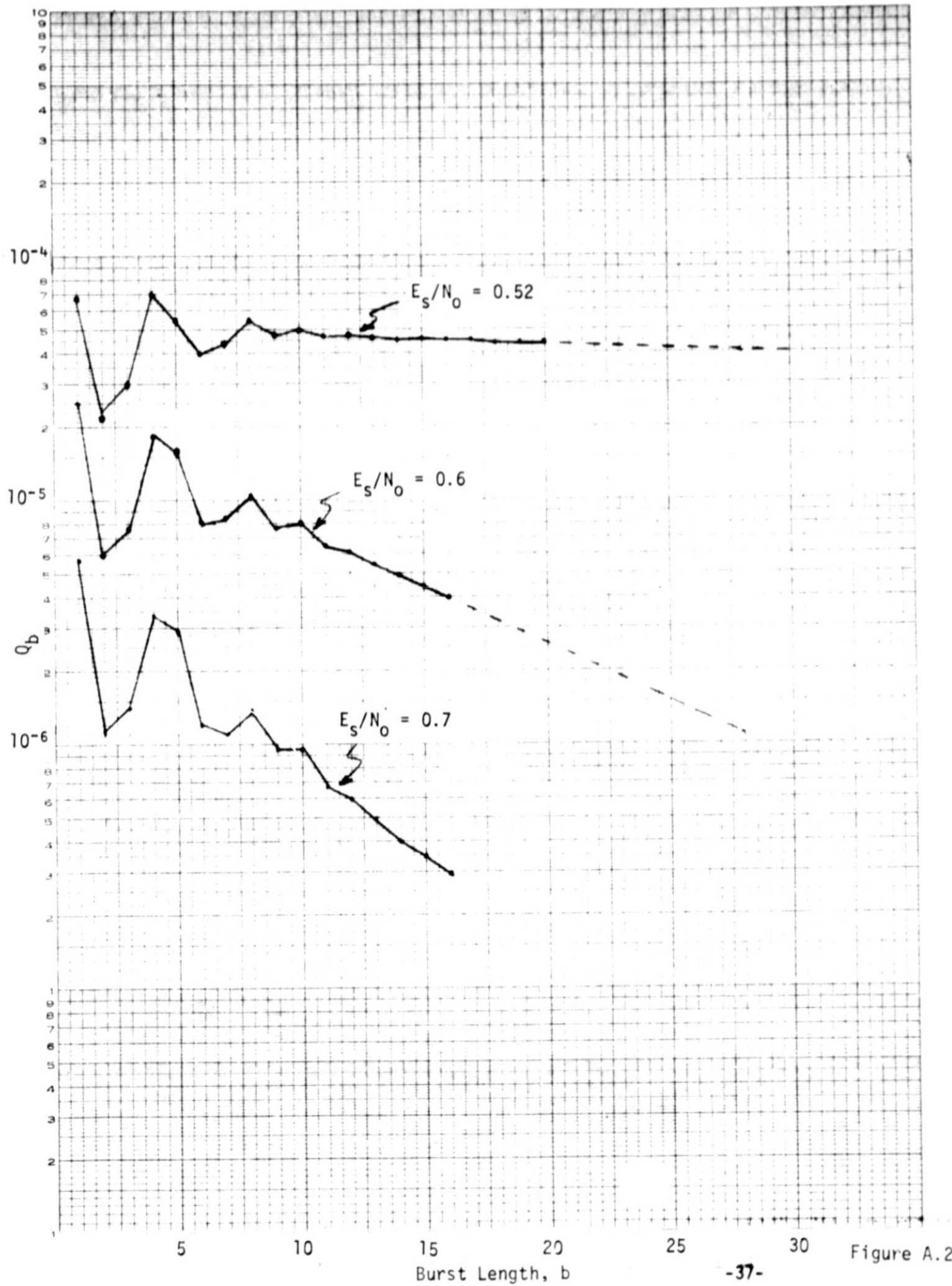


Figure A.2



The Jth bit in the burst is forced to be a "1". After the Jth bit has been generated the routine returns to the zero generation state